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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

An Evaluation of the Life Skills Program: Changes in Locus of Control, Self-Esteem and Assertion

by

Woodrow Michael Lloyd

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF Master of Education

Educational Psychology

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled An Evaluation of the Life Skills Program: Changes in Locus of Control, Self-Esteem and Assertion submitted by Woodrow Michael Lloyd in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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Abstract

This evaluation is concerned with changes in locus of control, self-esteem and assertiveness as a result of participating in the Life Skills program. Life skills is social skills training program which functions to encourage the adoption of effective and functional communication and problem solving behaviors.

Eighty-six subjects with an age range of 13 to 65 years participated in one of the six groups involved in the study.

Two groups were for adolescents in institutional or semi-institutional settings, one group was made up of adults on day-parole or probation, one group was adults who were generally socially dysfunctional, one group was Life Skills Coaches in training, and another group was the Coaches who led the groups in the program. The length of the program was three months of half days, five days a week, or equivalent time. One group operated full days for nine weeks.

The Coaches group experienced no change from originally having an Internal orientation of control and having a high level of self-esteem, however they did become more assertive through the program.

The trend for all groups was tending toward becoming more assertive, achieving a higher level of self-esteem and becoming more internal in locus of control.

Analysis of variance and T-tests on the differences in group means between pretests and posttests were completed. The change in the constructs of self-esteem, assertion and

locus of control was statistically significant for several groups on these measures.

The conclusion of the study is that the Life Skills program is effective in improving individual's self-esteem, assertion and altering locus of control. As a result, social skills training is considered to be a viable method for assisting people to acquire adequate and productive levels of social functioning and interaction.

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A. CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

The individual in modern society is confronted with an increasingly complex array of alternatives and choices in becoming established as a functioning member of society. There are many people who, through effects of upbringing and factors of environment, do not learn the abilities and coping skills to function competently and productively in society. This social dysfunction is witnessed in the personal breakdowns and failings that are evident in people being jailed, opting to live on social assistance, dissolution of family functioning, delinquency, and just despair and personal futility at being little able to cope with the dynamics of modern living.

Social structures are developing to meet some of the basic needs of individuals within society today. One of these models of intervention is investigated and evaluated in this study, It is a blend of education and therapy which offers training in social skills to effect positive growth of abilities as well as an awareness of alternatives for action and the individual's capabilities and potential.

The Life Skills program is a structured educational process which utilizes the concepts of experiential learning (Conger and Himsl, 1973), and stands in contrast to classical classroom teaching, individual therapy methods and

the encounter group or human relations group approach.

Definition of Life Skills

Life Skills, precisely defined, means problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal affairs. Problem solving behaviors exist as a relatively small class of (identifiable) behaviors usable in many life situations. Appropriate use requires an individual to adapt behaviors to time and place. Responsible use requires maturity and common sense. As behaviors used in the management of personal affairs, the Life Skills apply to five areas of life responsibility: self, family, leisure, community, and job/education (Himsl, 1973).

History of Life Skills

The Life Skills program was developed between 1969 and 1973 by Saskatchewan Newstart Incorporated and was sponsored by the Saskatchewan Department of Education and the Canadian Department of Regional and Economic Expansion. In 1972 the sponsorship of the program was transfered to the Training Research and Development Station of the Department of Manpower and Immigration.

The program was designed to provide specific training for disadvantaged individuals, having histories of unsuccessful employment, dysfunctional attitudes and problematic interpersonal skills to the extent that these

people were chronically in need of aid and assistance from social agencies.

The program was designed to provide experiential learning in skill development and problem solving for a group of ten to fifteen people. The Life Skills Coach is a participant leader who guides the students through the structured program of lessons.

The program under study was introduced into a large western Canadian city under the auspices of the Canadian Mental Health Association in 1973. The structured lessons of the Life Skills Program have been adhered to by the leaders of the groups involved in this evaluation study.

This study was designed to evaluate changes in interpersonal and intrapersonal functioning resulting from participation in the Life Skills program. Changes in self concept, locus of control, and assertion, were monitored. While the program embodies many areas of interaction, and changes are speculatively due to the process of the group as an educational vehicle, these three constructs were the focus of the evaluation.

The breadth and scope of the stimulus material, the unique history and accumulated experience of all the group members determine that the effects of participation are global.

Overview of the Study

Ten distinct training groups participated in the

evaluation which involved an administration of pre- and post- measures in self concept, assertion, and locus of control. The instruments used were the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Green Fox Scale, and Rotter's Locus of Control. Two additional sub-groups were identified and considered in this analysis. One sub-group is the Life Skills Coaches who participated with their groups in the evaluation. Another sub-group consisted of all those students who left the program prior to completion of the course but for whom pretest measures had been recorded.

There was no means by which a comparative control group could be established as each student group was unique in it's composition and characteristics of the members. This is reflected as one of the process variables of the Life Skills program. For the most part groups were deliberately mixed on the basis of sex, age, work experience, estimated level of social functioning, and intellectual functioning. The group membership is mixed with these variables of ability and attributes in mind, in the belief that the student members learn from each other as much as from the coach's training and experience, the program content, or community resources.

Changes in the realms of self concept, assertion, and locus of control as measured by the instruments have been used to infer change as a result of participation in the training process of the Life Skills group.

Experiential Learning

The program under study is an experiential training group in social skills. This approach is used to remediate socially inadequate behaviors in the study sample. The evaluation was an attempt to gain some understanding on the effect of the group experience on the individual.

As used in the Life Skills course, the word 'learning' means changed behavior, and the word 'skill' describes the behavior (Conger, 1973). The application of therapy by contrast typically utilizes a therapist as an outside agent of change and can be likened to the process of teaching, while the training process of the Life Skills program uses a coaching model. Coaching consists of presenting the training material and guiding the students through the experiences. In this case, learning is a voluntary process that is dependent on the student's own participation and initiative.

Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) believe that the most effective training program in communication and empathy are those which incorporate a heavy experiential emphasis with a focus upon the trainee's own constructive change or gain. They also have found that there is no difference in the rate of response or acquiring new skills for professional or non-professional people. Their research in training individuals in communication, understanding, and genuineness to others indicates that in relatively short periods of time the trainees show substantial improvements as a result of the experiential group training.

The training group attempts to provide experiences through which the student may learn about himself, his personal and interpersonal functioning, and from the reactions of others. This learning presumably takes place as a result of the interaction between members of the group, within the forum of the material of the course and the format of the training group process.

> "We can do anything in training that we can do in treatment and more. Training in interpersonal skills strikes at the heart of most difficulties in living. Systematic training of interpersonal skills affords a means of implementing the necessary learning in progressive gradations of experience which ensure the success of the learning. In making explicit use of all sources of learning --- the experiential, the didactic, and the modeling --- the systematic group training in interpersonal skills provides the most effective, economical, and efficient means of achieving individual growth of the largest number of persons" (Carkhuff 1969, p.131).

Summary

In this chapter an introduction to the study, the development, application, purposes and history of the Life Skills program are presented.

The training method has been discussed and assumptions that form the basis of this research have been listed.

The following chapter will review the literature and theory relevant to the experiential, social skills training group. Discussion of the constructs on which the instruments are based, and the research questions will conclude the chapter.

B. CHAPTER TWO

Research on Groups - a perspective

Research of the effects of an individual's participation in a group experience has some limitations in that the experimental model most often used to evaluate change, growth, modification or learning with individual subjects may not be applicable to group evaluations.

When the treatment approach is as broad in scope as is embodied in most group programs, and the subjects are a relatively diverse collection of people, there is some need to specify the areas of study. This research has utilized three objective psychological instruments in order to quantify change by group participants in self concept, assertion, and locus of control.

Applied Learning

The intention of this chapter is to outline the utilization of group process as an educational tool. Types of groups will be compared on the basis of their goals and process of change. In addition the group process will be discussed from the perspective of learning theories. Assertiveness, self concept, and locus of control as concepts and identifiable behaviors will be discussed in terms of learning participation in the group experience.

The emergence of groups as a response to a myriad of

individual needs is an established fact. There has been, however, relatively little effective evaluation of change as a result of involvement in a learning group.

A learning group is here defined as a gathering of individuals who work through a "program" under the guidance of a "facilitator" or "coach". Individual members are considered as potentially equal contributors to the learning, development, or change of the other members. This definition is in contrast to the most common of learning groups, the classroom led by an individual teacher.

The potential of groups in influencing the behavior of its members is seen as a potent new approach to social intervention. The conceptualization of intervention has become one of being educative rather than being an introspective analytical process, the result being that the range of variables and information that is applicable for effective intervention is much broader. (Conger and Himsl, 1973; Jacobs and Spradlin, 1974).

There has been some claim made that the therapeutic community turned to groups as an expedient means of dealing with individual problems because of a shortage of personnel. However it is more likely that the group method is used because it is more productive than other means of intervention (Jacobs and Spradlin, 1974).

Whatever the reason behind the formation of a group, the approach tends to emphasize learning in social contexts. As such the application of group training to students who

have inadequate social functioning appears to be potentially more productive than individual counselling and therapy. Golembiewski (1972) suggests that a general goal is the creation of a "society of learners" whose combined resources can encourage and enrich the learning of individual members. A learning community permits vicarious learning, in that an individual can identify aspects of himself in others and profit from observing the learning attempts of others (Bandura, 1962).

The desired outcome in terms of the behavior of the participant in the group is to leave the group experience with certain knowledge about himself or certain new skills, which can be transferred outside of the group milieu in such a way as to improve his social performance.

The group functions as a relatively safe environment in which new behaviors or different ways of interacting with others may be tried out without fear of societal censure. An effective group provides an atmosphere congenial to personal search and experimentation, generating support for the efforts of individuals and providing enthusiasm when the learner succeeds, or offering encouragement when the group member struggles with a new and unfamiliar approach (Golembiewski, 1970, 1972).

Factors such as the structure and cohesiveness of the group, and the interaction between the members influence learning and provide a mileau of support and encouragement. However, the ultimate responsibility for one's learning and

personal growth rests with the individual.

Client-centred and Existential approaches to counselling emphasize the experiential base of learning.

> "One of the very critical values of existentialism, is the emphasis upon the ultimate responsibility of the client for active decision-making. While the counselling therapist takes responsibility for making the therapy process happen, the client takes the responsibility in action for giving his life direction." (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967, p.82)

The expection of members in training groups is that although their personal level of social skill may be greater than or less than that of any other group member, they are to involve themselves in the material and structure of the training group (Conger, Himsl et al, 1973).

This individualization of application and involvement in learning is an important factor in the adaptability of the group process in social skill training.

Social Skill Training

Social skill training has been applied to many individuals with a wide range of problems and disabilities related to inadequate social functioning. A series of studies with psychiatric in-patients have shown that social skills training can produce predicted changes in social behavior in a highly specific manner (Eisler, Hersen and Miller, 1974).

Carkhuff and Truax, (1965) almost fifteen years ago, demonstrated the applicability of group training methods in raising the levels of communicated empathy and genuineness of hospital service personel. In a relatively short training period of ninty-six hours over 4 weeks, both graduate students and lay hospital personel were brought to functional levels of therapy nearly commensurate with those of experienced therapists.

In other specific psychiatric programs, social skill training is considered as a general therapy approach aimed at increasing a patient's performance in critical life situations through an emphasis on the positive educational aspects of treatment (Goldsmith and McFall, 1975).

Social skill training is based on the premise that the individual, given his physical limitations and unique learning history, always does the best that he can to respond as effectively as possible in every situation. When an individual's "best effort" behavior is judged to be maladaptive, this indicates the presence of a situation-specific deficit in that individual's repertoire (Mager and Pipe, 1970).

The Life Skills program was conceived as a composite of specific skill training experiences which collectively constitute a global educational approach to inadequate social functioning and maladaptive social behavior. The Life Skills lesson material has been analysed and over four hundred separate "skills" have been identified (Conger and

Himsl,1973).

Comparison of Encounter and Behavioral Group Training

The Life Skill program has been defined fairly precisely in terms of the orientation toward learning, and as a group process. There may be need to clarify where it fits within the spectrum of available group and learning strategies. In addition there is the need to delineate the program in terms of the therapy-treatment-training continuum.

The Life Skills program is considered by its developers, (Conger, Himsel et al) to be primarily a skill training program, although some treatment of interactional disabilities and dysfunctional attitudes and attributes may occur as a result of participation in the group. The students and professionals who refer the students to the program may consider the program to be theraputic or equivalent to therapy. This author believes that the intent of the program is to primarily provide skill training and that treatment and therapy may only be a secondary result of participation.

It is not within the perspective of this thesis to determine the degree to which factors other than training are embodied in the Life Skills Program.

Another area of definition for this study was in determining the type and process of learning that takes place as a result of participation in group learning

experiences. The learning presented and the process involved in various kinds of groups will be explored in the following section. The encounter group process is described to provide a contrast to the aims and process of the Life Skills group while the behavioral training group is described due to the similarities between the processes of the groups.

Human Relations Training-Encounter Group

The encounter group, learning lab, human relations training or T-group is a group learning experience which directs the participants to use feeling and emotional content, through enhanced communication skill to better understand their emotional and social interaction with others.

Encounter type groups have been for the most part a vehicle for intrapersonal and interpersonal growth and have been typically used for mentally healthy and well-functioning individuals. In some instances encounter has been applied as therapeutic alternatives for some levels of psychiatric intervention (Ganum, 1974).

Generally, encounter is a group experience that embodies an atmosphere of personal exploration focussing on the individual's accepting responsibility for his life situation and facilitating his recognition of the ways in which he influences his own self perceptions. Typically a group of this type contains some structured experiences and short theory inputs with emphasis on immediate awareness and

gaining of an understanding of personal feelings and actions. Groups focus on personal growth issues, centering on awareness of present feeling with some attention given to learning communications skills to enhance mutual understanding (Ganum, 1974).

Therapy typically relies on verbal, analytic, and intellectual exchanges between client and therapist while encounter utilizes openness, personal growth, awareness and responsibility (Schutz, 1970).

The viability of transferring technique or programs is important in understanding the applicability of training in groups to different sample populations. Identical strategies and steps can be applied in improving interpersonal communication in neurotic patients, maladaptive clients and with normal subjects (Patton and Griffin, 1974).

Therapy is applied by a therapist, an external agent of change who judges the subject to be in need and prescribes specific remediation. Learning specifically and group training experiences in general, are voluntary and dependant upon the individual's participation in the learning process.

A teaching situation or training program would be a relatively direct method of developing interpersonal competence compared to the encounter or human relations training group. In a training situation the leader or trainer refers to some pre-planned and structured lesson to encourage learner activities. This direct method for developing interpersonal competence might systematically

attempt to teach communication skills through practice in role-playing, discussions and group activities while human relation training groups typically approach such learning indirectly almost as a by-product of the intra-personal search for growth through the interaction with other students in the encounter group (Park, 1971).

Research on the skill learning available through human relation groups or encounter groups has been done by several theorists, including Bradford, Gibb and Berne (1964); and Bennis and Schein (1965). The intent of this research was to delineate and enumerate the skills that potentially are available in a training group.

The skills or learning experiences available through observation were classified into three realms of learning; cognitive, affective and behavioral changes (adapted from Park, 1971).

COGNITIVE CHANGES

Develop an understanding of:

1. group problem solving processes;
2. factors determining the behavior of individuals in groups;
3. components of leadership;
4. differences and similarities between group and individual members' perceptions;

In summary the individual develops a broader frame of reference.

AFFECTIVE CHANGES

Become increasingly aware of:

1. the impact he has on others as he brings forth various role aspects of his personality
2. incongruities between intended behaviors and perceived effects;
3. his own identity as distinct from other members;
4. his own feelings and how he may or may not have been threatened by their presence.

BEHAVIORAL CHANGES

Have the opportunity to:

1. increase action skills, including an ability to diagnose ongoing social situations and act effectively to increase group productivity;
2. increase ability to intervene successfully to improve personal relationships.

(adapted from Park, 1971)

While the above opportunities for learning are speculated to be available through encounter type groups, little definitive research is available to validate that this learning does take place (Bodnar, 1970). Or more importantly that this implied improved ability to function more effectively in social interactions does in fact transfer into the individual's daily living. Egan (1970), in a review of research on the group processes for interpersonal growth, discovered few studies that provide evidence of transfer of learning.

Behavioral Group Training

A training group may be oriented towards a behavioral interpretation of social interaction. As such the style of training is quite different from other types of group training in several aspects, most notably a more directive leadership style and program. While all groups, and all personal interactions for that matter, have contingencies which affect the process and outcome of such interactions, there are some elements or factors such as reinforcement and feedback which do affect the individual's learning which can be interpreted from a behavioral viewpoint.

> "The concepts of "reinforcement" and "feedback" are perhaps most useful in understanding Laboratory learning (training/learning groups). One learns about people as one learns about any other subject matter - by responding to a stimulus. In the laboratory the stimulus is the behavior of other persons. "Correct" responses are reinforced positively and tend to be established. "Incorrect" responses are not reinforced and tend to disappear. The training laboratory provides a group of other people as agencies of reinforcement. The problem of course, lies in the determination of which responses are "correct" and "appropriate". The lab group must work toward the formulation of standards against which "correctness" and "appropriateness" of member responses can be measured. Much individual learning

about criteria of appropriateness occurs in this process. Much individual learning about self may also occur as a result of the multifaceted responses from a variety of group members" (Benne, Bradford and Lippitt, 1964, p.25).

The main difference between behavioral groups and other treatment or encounter group procedures is the explicit use of modeling, operant analysis, vicarious learning, extinction and other techniques derived from social learning theory (Lazarus, 1971). Implicit modeling occurs in every group situation as it is inherently present in the mileau and not necessarily labeled or discussed, which distinguishes it from explicit modeling. Modeling in social learning theory is considered as a catalytic mechanism that increases the initial probability that some new reponse will occur, and social reinforcement as the mechanism which establishes this response in the individual's behavioral repertoire. In short, modeling elicits novel behavior and social reinforcement sustains it (Patterson and Reid, 1969).

One of the primary reasons for practising behavioral training in groups is that the cohesiveness and lack of defensiveness generated by a supportive group is an important facilitator of change (Lazarus, 1968). Staats and Staats (1964) suggest that group cohesiveness is the extent to which group members, acting as stimuli on one another, elicit positive and negative responses from one another. In effect, group cohesiveness is a result of the extent to

which individuals act as reinforcers. Language, social approval and modeling are all considered to have strong reinforcing value in directly or vicariously influencing change in an individual member's attitudes and behaviors (Bandura and Ross, 1961). Bandura (1961, 1969) believes that a person can acquire new behavior repertoires even though the observer receives no direct reinforcement or performs any overt responses while observing other's actions.

Group members could be considered as stimuli who have differential reinforcing effects upon one another. A given group member's stimuli characteristics are a combination of his physical and behavioral attributes such as age, role and actions. A members's ability to influence other members depends on the reinforcement characteristics present. For example, the ability to establish and maintain an authority relation in a group is a function of the amount and variety of reinforcers available to the individual (Adams and Romney, 1959).

Carkhuff (1969) suggests that the level of development of interpersonal skills in a group is dependant upon the level of functioning of the trainer. If the climate in the group is supportive of members improving their interaction and moving toward higher levels of functioning, then each individual group member has multiple potential helpers in the other members by means of modeling and vicarious learning.

It can be suggested that the group is a potent vehicle

for education, capable of meeting the needs of an individual for training and learning through access to a broad range of experiences, attitudes and new behaviors. The strength of a behavioral group, one that uses explicit modeling, role-play and behavior rehearsal, is that predictable and observable behavioral changes can be demonstrated.

Some attempt has been made in this section to provide an understanding of the process components of the Life Skills program, in order that awareness can form the basis for considering what changes and what learning can take place as a result of participation in the program.

The Life Skills program embodies some elements of human relations training and many elements of behavioral training. The process and program is an eclectic one which utilizes some degree of self-analysis of reactions and attitudes, behavior rehearsal and directive role-play, and a gestalt approach in dealing with issues and events from a "here and now" perspective. The main focus is on communication skills in interacting with others, developing coping and problem solving behaviors, and learning other adaptive social skills.

Learning Theories related to the Group Process

The following section will explore several theories of learning as they relate to the processing of information and experiences that are available through a training/learning group.

Gagne (1970) takes a strict view of learning as a relationship between components within a task, skill or realization. The steps of learning are broken down into relatively minute process components. An important condition for learning is the recall of previously learned relevant subordinate learnings, and the process of learning is acquiring a progressive hierarchy of steps toward a desirable skill level. The subordinate capabilities have the character of an intellectual skill (something the learner can do), and not of verbal information.

Gagne's conceptualization suggests that skills can be effectively taught providing three components are identified and acquired in a progressive manner toward higher level skills.

Dollard and Miller view the behavior of the individual as reinforced social learning. Behavior being the product of social conditions as well as mental processes such as the individual's ability to solve mental, social and emotional problems. Their social learning theory holds that all behavior, even maladaptive neurosis is learned as essentially a drive-cue-response-reward theory.

The behavior of four classes of people is imitated (learned) by others. They are those who are considered by the "learner" to be superior in an age-grade hierarchy, a hierarchy of social status, an intelligence ranking system or superior technicians in any field. Learning in this case takes place vicariously as a result of non-active but

cognitive modeling or active imitation subsequent to observation of the model behavior.

> "Copying can become an acquired drive, providing copying behavior has been rewarded. Conditions of social contact offer the best opportunity for rapid copying, since they bring the learner into contact with the model and critic who can rapidly elicit the correct response" (Dollard and Miller, 1970 p.299).

The training group can be conceived of as a mechanism of reinforcement in that members can provide feedback and encouragement for an individual's attempts at new behaviors. Feedback can create a shaping situation in developing appropiate adaptive behaviors and interactional responses. The group members provide reinforcement for social learning that is deemed to be positive for the individual in the context of the program and his specific life situation.

Learning, as conceived by Albert Bandura, takes place primarily by modeling observed behavior and interactions.

> "Virtually all learning phenomena resulting from direct experiences can occur on a vicarious basis through observation of other people's behavior and its consequences for the observer. An individual may acquire intricate response patterns simply by observing the performances of appropriate models; . . . the expression of well learned responses is extensively controlled by the modelling stimulus" (Sahakian, 1970, p.392)

The broad effect that modeling presents to the observer has been revealed in experimental situations which employed multiple models displaying diverse patterns of behavior. Subsequent evaluation of the observer's behavior revealed that they exhibited relatively novel responses which represented characteristics and elements from several of the different models. (Bandura and Ross; Ross, 1963).

Modeling appears to be a general process or facility for learning. Apparently the criteria of a model is that it needs only to be significant for the observer to some degree, and that the modeled behavior be desirable. Bandura's studies suggest that an observer can learn portions of behaviors from a relatively wide range of models. The process of teaching, coaching or training then requires that an appropiate model for behavior be present and that it be considered to be significant and desirable by the participant observer.

Similar to Gagne's Cumulative Learning Model, Bandura believes that:

> "complex behavior patterns are produced by combinations of previously learned components which may, in themselves, represent relatively intricate compounds. In instances where observers lack some of the necessary components, the constituent elements can best be established through reinforced modeling and then in a stepwise fashion, increasingly complex compounds can be acquired imitatively" (1970,p.400).

Reinforcement of an observed behavior (vicarious learning) takes place through varying amounts of overt practice. Depending on the complexity of the behavior the learning is maintained not only by directly experienced consequences arising from external sources, but also by vicarious reinforcement and self-reinforcement (Bandura, 1970).

Carl Rogers, (1970) referring to learning as a process, emphasized the benefits of experiential learning as being particularly significant or meaningful to the student. Significant learning must be an experience of discovery rather than merely a transmission of stored knowledge.

Rogers (1970, p.509) has deliniated the elements of significant or experiential learning.

1. It has a quality of personal involvement. The whole person in both his feeling and cognitive aspects is involved in the learning event.
2. It is self-initiated. Even when the impetus or stimulus comes from outside, the sense of discovery, of reaching out, of grasping and comprehending comes from within.
3. It is pervasive. It makes a difference in the behavior, the attitudes, perhaps even the personality of the learner.
4. It is evaluated by the learner. "This is not quite what I want- doesn't go quite far enough- oh-this is better, this is what I want to know". The locus of

evaluation may be said to reside definately in the learner.

5. Its essence is meaning. When such learning takes place, the element of meaning to the learner is built into the whole experience. (1970, p.509)

A main element of experiential learning appears to be that subject matter which is perceived by the student as having relevance for his own purposes; those skills, behaviors or attitudes which are involved in the maintenance or the enhancement of his own self. Involving the student in direct experiential confrontation with practical problems, social problems, ethical and philosophical problems and personal issues is one of the most effective modes of promoting learning (Rogers, 1970).

Rogers also believes that self-initiated learning which involves the whole person, his feelings as well as intellect, is the most lasting and pervasive. When the student discovers his own learning resources, defines his problems, decides on a course of action, and accepts the consequences of his choices, then the learning is maximized.

Locus of Control

The willingness to participate fully in a training program and the subsequent degree of change or adoption of

new behavioral alternatives and adding new behaviors and attitudes to one's interactional repertoire may be dependant upon the individual's expectancy of success. Conceivably, the degree of involvement in the learning process or learning opportunity is related to the potential degree of success in that endeavour.

The perception of one's personal impact on a social environment, work relations, or social interactional patterns may be influential in determining the degree of personal involvement with those actions, events and happenings. These individual differences in the degree to which a person perceives that an event or reward for a behavior is under his control or is a result of luck or fate has long been the topic of interest to reseachers in the fields of psychology, personality and social learning theory. Two major research reports (Rotter, 1966; Lefourt, 1966) have considered the theoretical and practical implications of the individual's expectancy for control of events and reinforcements. In Rotter's theory the control construct is considered a generalized expectancy, operating across a large number of situations, which relates to whether or not the individual possesses or lacks power over what happens to him (Hawkins, 1972).

Rotter's locus of control construct is a classification of individuals according to the degree to which they accept personal responsibility for what happens to them. As a general principle, internal control refers to the perception

of positive and/or negative events as being consequences of one's own actions and thereby under personal control; external control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events being unrelated to one's own behavior as a result of luck or fate, and thereby beyond personal control (Lefourt, 1966; Rotter, 1966).

The concept of locus of control was formulated as a continuum with a range from highly internally controlled individuals through to highly externally controlled individuals, depending on the person's belief about the nature of the world. Conceptually people are classified according to what their expectations are about the control of reinforcements for actions.

Rotter's (1966) presentation of the locus of control attempted to provide some definition of the personality characteristics of internally controlled or externally controlled states. There appeared to be an interaction between internality and experience with success. An extension of the notion of internal-external control was that those at the internal end of the scale would show more overt striving for achievement than those who felt that they had little control over their environment. The internally controlled individual with a history of failure apparently took responsibility for the failure, while an external orientation may have acted as a defense mechanism in dealing with the failure. In fact Rotter (1966) suggested that very strongly externally oriented persons may be definitely

maladjusted. Internals were conceived to be resistive to perceived manipulation unless it was seen to be to their advantage.

In a 1966 review of research related to internal-external locus of control, there was support for the hypothesis that the individual who has a strong belief that he can control his own destiny is likely to;

1. be more alert to those aspects of the environment which provide useful information for his future behavior;
2. take steps to improve his environmental conditions;
3. place greater value on skill or achievement reinforcements and be generally more concerned with his ability, particularly his failures, and;
4. be resistive to subtle attempts to influence him. (Rotter, 1966, p.25)

Considerable research on locus of control has been completed since Rotter's early work. The validity of the construct is under question as a result of some conflicting findings. Originally internals were classified as positive, optimistic, well adjusted, active individuals; and externals, one suspects almost by inference, were classified as pessimistic, maladjusted, lethargic individuals. The characteristics of internals and externals as personality types have received more definition with subsequent research. According to Hersch and Scheibe (1967), Rotter's theoretical formulation of internal-external locus of control may have been too simplistic. In comparing internals

with externals on various personality measures, the internal group was quite homogeneous on their test performances, while the external group was more diverse and their performances were more variable. These results suggested a diversity in the psychological meaning of externality. As compared with the conceptualization of locus as a two dimensional continuum. Hersch and Scheibe also had internals and externals pick self-describing adjectives from a list of three hundred. Twenty-three adjectives were picked significantly more by the internal individual. The adjectives more frequently checked by internals were; clever, efficient, egotistical, enthusiastic, independent, self-confident, ambitious, assertive, boastful, conceited, conscientious, deliberate, perservering, clear-thinking, dependable, determined, hard-headed, industrious, ingenious, insightful,organized, reasonable, and stubborn. On the other hand only one adjective was checked more often by externals; self-pitying (1966, p.612).

There has been less definition of the characteristics of an externally oriented person but there have been studies which have compared differing sociological groups according to the construct of locus of control. Groups that faced restricted fields of alternatives and goals such as delinquents, native Indians, blacks, and Spanish-Americans tend to be externally oriented (Hawkins, 1972; MacDonald, 1971). Externals tend to favor traditional learning environments compared to internals who tend to favor

self-directed, unstructured programs (Goldman, 1976). Externals support a structured leader role in a group therapy versus internals who tend to prefer an unstructured leader role (Kilmann and Sotile, 1976). MacDonald (1971) stated that locus of control is an expectancy variable and that externals are typically those persons with low or negative expectancies for success in altering their lot in life.

Internal control is further defined by Cone (1971) as a tendency to behave in socially desirable ways in order to receive social reinforcement. Ashton (1974) suggests that internal control is a critical factor in determining degree of motivation. Glaser (1977) revealed that internality can be considered an index of positive mental health. Internals tend to be more successful (Drasgow, Palau, Taibi and Drasgow, 1974) and are more confident in their abilities to solve problems (Johnson and Kilmann, 1975).

Change toward a more internal orientation was reported with a group of educable mentally retarded children as a result of participation in a sequential instructional program teaching adaptive behavior responses (Wicker and Tyler, 1975). Pierce, Schauble and Farkas (1970), have effectively taught internalization behavior to adults in therapy. Working with adults in a crisis situation, Smith (1970), found that this group was not significantly more externally oriented than a similar group of non-crisis out patients. Following a six week resolution period this group

showed a significant shift toward an internal orientation while the non-crisis outpatients showed no significant shift. According to the construct of internal-external control a shift in degree of orientation would indicate a shift in an individual's expectancy for success or belief in his own ability to act effectively and beneficially in a social or interactional situation. There appears to be considerable support for the desirability of an individual to have an internal control orientation.

However there is research which brings the clarity of the construct into question. In comparing teacher attitude with control orientation, Janzen, Beeken and Hritzuk (1973), found locus of control to be a poor predictor of interpersonal behavior, relative to expectations of classroom behavior. Janzen and Beeken (1973) also questioned the implicit assumption that an internal locus of control unilaterally represents a more positive approach to life. There is support however for Rotter's (1966) hypothesis that "Knowledge of locus of control is of major significance in understanding the nature of learning processes in different kinds of learning situations". Further investigation of the theoretical basis of internal-external locus of control was suggested by Janzen and Boersma (1976).

There have been some groups of subjects who have provided evidence contrary to the expectation of the internally orientated as a well functioning and well adjusted person. Goss and Morasko (1970) and Gozali and

Sloan (1971) both found that their alcholic groups under study were significantly more internally oriented than a group of non-alcoholic normals. Hawkins (1972) discovered that no matter what stage of involvement with alcoholism; denial, surrender, or responsibility, the alcoholics were all internally oriented and maintained their orientation throughout. While these findings don't negate the positive aspects of the internal orientation, they will need to be considered in judging the overall nature of internality and externality. These findings underscore the need for cautious evaluation of the construct and careful interpretation of the implications of an internal or external orientation of control.

While the majority of studies using the construct have provided positive definition for the internally orientated individual, it may have been a fallacy to assume that an externally oriented person is the opposite to an internally orientated person. The conceptualization of a continuum with degrees of orientation from internal to external requires further clarification. Further research that provides greater definition of the characteristics and perspectives of externally orientated individuals is also needed.

The main weakness in the construct of locus of control appears to be a lack of definition of the external orientation and subsequently a lack of support for the conceptualization of the construct as a continuum ranging from internally oriented to externally oriented.

Generally, it has been accepted that an internal orientation is desirable as it tends to indicate a positive, well functioning, active individual. The characteristics of an externally oriented person are less well known and there is a need to delineate the attributes and general attitude and motivation of the externally orientated individual. Studies report that change has been achieved as a result of group training, both directly and indirectly attempting to modify the orientation of external individuals.

Compared to other constructs related to positive mental health, internals have tended to be better motivated, less dependant and possessing a better self-concept (Hawkins, 1972; Glaser, 1977).

It is conceivable that the Life Skills program fosters increased self-dependence and a belief of one's own capabilities. Therefore it is desirable to measure an aspect of this type of functioning with the Locus of Control instrument. This study will explore the internal-external control construct in relation to other indices of intrapersonal functioning and assess change in these constructs as a result of participation in a group social training experience.

Self-Concept and Self-Esteem

A person's conception of himself influences his behavior, affecting the style of interaction with others, attitudes, motivations and level of functioning within

society (Wylie, 1974; White, 1977).

Fitts (1971) suggests that the self-concept is a powerful influence in human behavior in that it is the frame of reference through which the individual interacts with his world.

As the composite result of social learning over time, the self-concept is developed on the basis of evaluation by others communicated during interpersonal interactions (Byrne, 1974; McMillan, 1977).

Some clarity in the field of self-theory has been provided by Calhoun and Morse (1977) in delineating the following three discrete concepts:

1. SELF, as the sum total of all one can call his;
2. SELF-CONCEPT, as the substantive description which one employs to identify his nature; and,
3. SELF-ESTEEM, one's satisfaction with his self-concept.

Self-concept is the way an individual perceives himself and his behavior and his opinion of how others view him while the satisfaction with that self-concept is identified as self-esteem (Wylie, 1974; Perkins, 1975; Calhoun, Warren, and Kurfiss, 1976).

The importance of this distinction becomes clear when the relative stability of self concept and self-esteem are considered. The self-concept can be altered only gradually, employing intensive stimulation from people with whom the individual has established strong relationships. Self-esteem is a more variable indicator of satisfaction with one's self

compared to the stability of the self-concept, and may be considered as an index of mental health related to personal comfort, strength and ability.

Self-concept has been more fully defined as an interaction of a person's attitudes about himself. The self-concept is conceptually defined by Fitts (1965, 1971, 1972) to be made up of several components such as the social, physical, moral-ethical, personal, and family selves. The individual continually processes his own self-judgement, behavior, and identity relative to these components in reference to one's ideal self with the evaluative outcome being the self-esteem.

When reviewing the studies which have attempted to improve the individual's level of self-concept through application of various group strategies and programs, one is faced with a wealth of conflicting results. The number of studies which report results of no change in self-concept is roughly equal to the studies that do report a positive change in self-concept.

These studies have all been directed toward discerning an educational or theraputic intervention by which positive self-concept can be achieved.

No change in self-concept has been found as a result of activity type guidance groups with school children (Runion, 1975); group process classes (Giles, 1976); structured versus unstructured small group experiences (Levin, 1974); or comparing three types of human relations training (Dye,

1974) with university students ; as well as behavior prescriptive versus interpretive, insight orientated therapy with adults (Shipman, 1975).

A positive change in the level of self-concept was achieved as a result of, an adult psychotherapy group (Ashcroft and Fitts,1964); a T-group lab for student teachers (Cabianca, 1967); group therapy with prisoners (Lynch, 1974); group counselling with peer counsellors for adult students (Copeland, 1974); group skill training for adolescent offenders (Klarreich, 1974); using an educational model group training with adolescent boys (Garber, 1976); video tape feedback and discussion of an adult task-oriented group (O'Leary, 1976) and a structured and unstructured groups with university students (Ware and Barr, 1977).

There are no trends evident which would indicate which type of intervention was effective in promoting the growth of a more positive self-concept. On the basis of the overall conflict of study results one would be hard-pressed to predict with much assurance which type of program intervention would be capable of producing change in self-concept. Admittedly these studies are seldom equivalent and available for direct comparison but the range of efforts to improve the levels of self-concept is wide enough to reflect the scope of the problem and the need for clarification.

Considering the type of intervention represented by the Life Skills program, there is more similarity with the types

of programs which did produce a positive change in self-concept than those which resulted in no change. It may be reasonable to expect that self-esteem and, by inference, self-concept would be improved when an individual has an increased range of adaptive behaviors to use in his life tasks and a supportive group to encourage the development of his abilities.

While the acquisition of an improved level of self-concept appears to be unpredictable, a number of studies have been productive in providing some definition of the qualities and characteristics which seem to accompany an acceptable level of self-concept. Atchison (1958) found significant differences in the self-concept levels of high school students when comparing students with behavior problems versus students without behavior problems. Joplin (1967) in a two year follow up of adolescents on probation found that non-recidivists had had higher self-concept changes during prior treatment. Pitts and Hamner (1969) found the self-concepts of delinquents compared to non-deliquents were more negative, uncertain, variable and conflicted. Schiffler, Lynch-Sauer and Nadelman (1977) in observing classroom behavior of elementary students found that high self-concept students had a higher percentage of task-orientated behaviors. DeVoe (1977) discovered that students with high self-concept levels demonstrated the most cooperative and productive behaviors in a competitive task situation.

The attributes of a satisfactory or high level of self-concept are evident when compared to the qualities and functioning of lower level self-concept individuals.

Assertion

Assertiveness, as opposed to the denial of feelings and anxious withdrawl from interaction from others in social situations, is a significant indicator of the individual's overall emotional and personality adjustment.

> "The truely assertive person possesses four characteristics; he feels free to reveal himself. Through words and actions he makes the statement,"This is me. This is what I feel, think, and want." He can communicate with people on all levels...with strangers, friends, family. This is always open, direct and appropriate. He has an active orientation to life. He goes after what he wants. In contrast to the passive person who waits for things to happen, he attempts to make things happen. He acts in a way he himself respects. Aware that he can not always win, he accepts his limitations. However, he always strives to make the good try so that win, lose or draw, he maintains his self-respect" (Fensterheim and Baer, 1975, p.8).

Assertive behavior is direct, honest and appropriate social behavior. Thoughts, emotions and beliefs expressed

without sacrifice, or without being negated in a relationship with another, in a way that does not violate another person's rights (Cotler, 1976; Lange and Jukubowski, 1976).

Lazarus (1971) equates assertiveness with emotional freedom with the resultant effects of decreased anxiety, close and meaningful relationships, self-respect and social adaptivity.

Assertiveness training is a behavioral procedure which utilizes a variety of techniques such as behavior shaping, role-play, rehearsal and modeling. Wolpe (1969) recommended assertive training for clients exhibiting maladaptive anxiety in interpersonal situations, in that assertive behaviors are antagonistic to anxiety resulting from social interactions. A major focus of assertive training is teaching basic assertive skills, in addition to dispelling unwarranted anxieties or inhibitions the person may have toward behaving assertively (Brodie, 1979).

Socially appropriate assertive responses can be acquired through group training utilizing behavior rehearsal, modelling, performance feedback, and coaching (McFall and Marston, 1970; McFall and Littlesand, 1971; McFall and Twentyman, 1973; Joanning, 1976; Weiskolt and Cleland, 1977). In addition to exhibiting assertive behavior, Pathus (1972) reported significantly greater reduction of fear of social criticism and social incompetence as a result of assertive training groups.

Acquisition of assertive behaviors has also been achieved as a result of group programs which apparently were not directed specifically toward this end. A para-professionally run social skills group was found to result in the development and maintenance of assertive behavior beyond the duration of treatment (Crowe, 1976). Finch (1977) reported that an interpersonal skills training group resulted in significantly improved measures of self-reported assertiveness.

Positive treatment effects of assertiveness have been generalized from trained to untrained, extended and new situations in studies reported by McFall and Twentyman (1973); and Steel (1977). This transfer of learning is significant support for the effectiveness of the assertive training techniques of modeling, behavior rehearsal, coaching, feedback, reinforcement and goal setting in learning and adopting new appropriate social behaviors.

Related Studies

The relationship of an individual's locus of control to level of self-esteem and assertiveness has seldom been a subject of research. There remains little clarity in understanding what correlations there may be between these constructs.

Two recent studies have considered this problem and have produced contradictory results. A study by Baer (1976) investigated the impact of different types of assertiveness

training for women. Two experimental groups received the same program of behavioral rehearsal, role-play, instruction and bibliotherapy. One of these groups received additional self-management instruction monitoring their own behavior by using positive self-reinforcement techniques. Total group time was 12 hours over 8 weeks. Compared to a no-treatment control group both experimental groups showed significantly improved assertive behavior on posttest and follow-up. The subjects in the self-management group reported more positive self-evaluations than the other experimental group and the controls. The locus of control dimension did not appear to be affected by the assertiveness training.

Another study by Steel (1976) investigated the effects of group assertive skill training on the development, maintenance and generalization of assertive skills for unassertive women. The study also attempted to show that a gain in assertive skills results in a corresponding shift away from the external locus of control toward a more internal locus of control. Subjects were randomly assigned to experimental or control groups and no significant differences between groups on a variety of measures were found at pretest. Experimental subjects received a semi-structured treatment involving modeling, behavior rehearsal, coaching, cognitive restructuring, feedback reinforcement, goal setting, and keeping logs. Total group time was 16 hours over 4 weeks. Experimental subjects were measured to be more assertive on posttest measures and at a

4 week follow up. This finding was confirmed by subject self-report ratings. Assertive skills were found to be generalizing from trained to extended and new situations. The experimental subjects also increaased in their locus of control orientation at posttest and at follow-up. Consequently, a gain in assertiveness was accompanied by a corresponding shift away from an external locus of control toward a more internal locus of control.

These well done and yet contradictory studies have revealed no trend for assessing the relationship between assertiveness and an internal locus of control. The research however, does provide support for the speculation that persons who gain in assertive behaviors have a corresponding increase in their apparent level of self-esteem.

Hypotheses

This study is an exploration of the effect on the individual of participating in an intensive social skills learning program. The Life Skills Program offers alternative behavioral choices for the participants over a wide range of functional areas of their lives. The group process embodied in the program encourages the students to adopt the life skills as desirable and more adaptive modes of interaction with others. While the outcomes of participation in the program are claimed to be global, it is plausible that specific areas of change of attitude and perceived abilities include locus of control orientation, self-esteem, and

assertiveness.

Locus of Control

A major aspect of the Life Skills process is upon active trial and evaluation of new and alternative behaviors or ways of interacting with others. Taking responsibility for one's own behavior is a major focus for Life Skills. Achievement of this expectation is expressed in the following two hypotheses.

a. Hypothesis 1

Externally oriented individuals will become more internally oriented.

b. Hypothesis 2

Internally oriented individuals will maintain an internal locus of control throughout the program.

The characteristics of an externally oriented individual have seldom been defined. Generally research has suggested that externals are passive and less well adjusted when compared with internally orientated individuals. The following hypothesis is formulated in regard to this statement.

c. Hypothesis 3

Individuals rated external will have a lower level of self-esteem and assertion compared to internally rated individuals at the end of the program.

Self-Esteem

The Life Skills program supposedly promotes improved personal and interpersonal functioning. Considering this, it is likely that by becoming functional and achieving a greater degree of success, socially and personally, there will be an increase in the student's level of self-esteem.

d. Hypothesis 4

Students in the program will achieve an increase in level of self-esteem.

Assertion

Participants in the Life Skills program are involved in role-play, behavioral rehearsal, video-tape and personal feedback, directed at encouraging and training the student to act effectively and assertively in interpersonal situations. It is conceivable that this training will result in a change in the individual's ease with appropriately assertive behaviors. Considering this aspect of the program the following hypothesis has been developed.

e. Hypothesis 5

Students of the Life Skills Program will have an tendency to be more assertive.

Coaches

The Life Skills Coaches and Coaches in training,

who were included in this study, are typically well adjusted and functioning positively in society. In addition it may be said that their vocational choice and role is self-determined and satisfying. The following Hypotheses are formulated considering their leadership and coaching role in this social skills training program.

f. Hypothesis 6

Coaches will show no change in their rating of locus of control.

g. Hypothesis 7

Coaches will show no change in their level of self-esteem.

h. Hypothesis 8

Coaches will show no change in their level of assertiveness

Correlation of the constructs

The relationship of the constructs of locus of control, self-esteem and assertion have been studied to some degree. However the result have been sometimes unclear and contradictory. It may be presumed that a satisfied and well functioning individual with an adequate level of self-esteem will be assertive as well. In addition, an assertive individual may also function from an internal control orientation, given that assertive behavior is essentially self-originating. An

internally orientated individual may be presumed to also exhibit an adequate level of self-esteem. There is insufficient evidence to support a relation between asserti on and internal locus of control The following hypotheses follow from these conditions.

i. Hypothesis 9

There will be a positive relationship between self-esteem and assertion.

j. Hypothesis 10

A positive change in assertion will not entail a change toward the internal locus of control.

C. CHAPTER THREE

Introduction

This chapter will present a description of the sample and groups involved in this evaluation.

The instruments used to measure change in the sample's level of self-esteem, locus of control, and level of assertiveness, as well as data gathering procedure, will be presented.

Groups Represented in the Study

Ten groups were involved in this study. While all were Life Skills groups following the same structured program, there was a relatively wide range of characteristics and attributes within the sample. The differences of the sample may serve to support the notion of generalizability of the application of the program in teaching and remediating social skills.

A no-treatment control group was not used in this research design. Due to the variability of the characteristics of the individuals within each group a matched control group would have been very difficult to define.

The total number of subjects who participated in the initial testing was 150 people. Due to drop-outs from the program and subjects who failed to complete all three

instruments on the pretest and posttests, the total number of subjects who participated in the final testing was 86 people. The evaluation of change as a result of participation in the program will be based in measures from pretest to posttest for the 86 subjects.

It is of interest to compare the pretest ratings of those who did not complete the program with the pretest ratings of those who did complete the program. This comparison will be considered to be an ancilliary finding and will be discussed in the final chapter.

The Life Skills groups under study operated from a number of different centres and were under the auspices of a number of different organizations. The Life Skills Coach Training group was made up of thirteen subjectswho were in training to be leaders of Life Skills groups. The training program was the same as the other Life Skills groups with the additional process variable of being made aware of the roles and responsibilities a Coach takes in leading the group. The lessons were identical to those used throughout this program. The length of the program was nine weeks of 8 to 12 hour days. The Coach Trainer and leader of the Coach Training group has trained all of the coaches of the groups involved in this research. The close similarity of training method, course material, and influence of this leader is considered to be a unifying factor for effect throughout the Life Skills groups. The subjects in the Coach Training group were expecting to act as leaders in their communities in

implementing Life Skills programming. Some had professional positions with social services, health or educational agencies.

The coaches of the Life Skills groups participated in this study and were expected to be relatively unaffected by exposure to the program at this point of their involvement with Life Skills. The number of subjects in this group is four people. While this number is very small compared to other groups, it is expected that there will be no change on any of the measures between pretest and posttest. This lack of effect may be useful in providing some comparative base for effect of the program on other groups.

Five groups were operated under the auspices of the Life Skills Training Centre. The groups of three different Coaches were involved in this study, one Coach had one group while the other two coaches ran two groups each. The total number of subjects in this block is 48.

Each group functioned for three months of half days, five days a week. The structured lessons of the Life Skills program were used for the duration. The students at the Life Skills Training Centre ranged in age from 16 years to 65 years old. Overall they lacked confidence, and social functioning skills. Many were unemployed or receiving social assistance for long periods of time. The education level ranged from Grade 3 to university courses. Many of the students had been referred to the program by Social Services, Manpower, counsellors and doctors.

Another Life Skills group was operated under the auspices of the Chimo Youth Retreat Centre. This group ran for three months of half days, five days a week. The subjects in this group were thirteen to sixteen years old and had been expelled from the regular school system. Most of the students lived in Chimo group homes as a result of an inability to function within their family setting. In addition to participating in the Life Skills group, the subjects were also students in the remedial school classrooms operated by Chimo. The total number of subjects in this group was six.

Another Life Skills group was operated at Westfield Centre, a residential treatment centre for adolescents with emotional-behavioral and school based problems. This group ran for three months of half days, five days a week. The age range was from thirteen to fifteen years old. The students attended the remedial school at Westfield in addition to participating in the Life Skills group. Almost all of the students in the group were in residence at the centre, others were living in group homes or at home. The number of subjects in this group was three.

Two groups were run by Grierson Centre of the National Parole Service. The total number of people in these groups was twel ve. These adult groups had subjects aged eighteen years to forty-five years old. The subjects in these groups had been incarcerated in various federal penal institutions, or had been referred by Native Counselling Services. The

majority of the subjects were on day parole and the Life Skills program was considered to be a training opportunity to enable students to more effectively deal with society. The time length for these groups was six weeks of full days. The structured lessons of the Life Skills program and the educational training format of the program was maintained.

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF GROUP SIZES

Coaches	4
Coach Training	13
Grierson	12
Chimo	6
Westfield	3
Training Centre	48

Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study to assess change in three constructs hypothesized to be effected by social skills training.

Self-esteem, as a reflection of satisfaction with one's self-concept was measured by the Total Positive Scale of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

Locus of control was measured by Rotter's Locus of Control, an instrument which yields a single numerical score

and serves to indicate the subject's degree of control orientation ranging from highly internal to highly external. Subject scores were blocked to facilitate clear identification of internal and external control orientation.

The Green Fox Scale was used as a measure of tendency to exhibit assertive behavior. The scale yields a single numerical score which assists easy identification of change in tendency for assertive behavior.

Tennessee Self Concept Scale

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965), is an instrument designed to empirically measure aspects of the self. Fitts conceives of the self concept as a two dimensional grid that represents the interaction of eight different areas of self-perception. One dimension is formed by the individual describing or evaluating his unique self and the other reflects a self-description relative to situational factors such as family, social, moral-ethical, and physical issues.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale, a self administered instrument, measures aspects of self perception. It consists of 100 self-descriptive statements, to which subjects respond on a five point scale ranging from "completely true" to "completely false". A number of variables relative to self-concept are identified by the scale, however only the Total Positive score was used in this research. According to

Fitts (1965), the Total Positive score is the most important single score of the scale. This score reflects the overall level of self-esteem. Pound, Hansen, and Putnam (1977), found that the Total Positive score accounted for the majority of variance within the subscales, and also that this factor was best represented by the overall level of self-esteem. The implication was that as much information about self-concept can be obtained from the Total Positive score as can be extracted from the combined subscales.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was standardized on a population of over 600 males and females, aged 12-68 years. Reliability coefficients for the subscales ranged from .60 to .92, with a mean .81; these were based on test-retest over a two week period. The Total Positive scale within the T.S.C.S. had a reliability estimate of .92.

Rotter's Locus of Control

Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (1966), is a twenty-nine item forced choice test that includes six filler items intended to make somewhat more ambiguous the purpose of the test. The items on the scale deal exclusively with the subject's belief about the nature of the world. The items relate to the subject's expectations about how reinforcement is controlled and can be considered to be a test of generalized expectancy

of reward. The score of the test is the total number of external choices.

Rotter (1966), reports the reliability of the instrument with a variety of samples, to be .65 for split-half; .79 for Spearman-Brown; and .69 to .76 for Kuder-Richardson tests of reliability. The test-retest reliability for one month ranged from .60 to .83. Hersch and Scheibe (1967), report test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from .43 to .84 for a two month interval and a reliability coefficient (Spearman-Brown) of . 72 for students tested after a year time lapse.

Green Fox Scale

The Green Fox Scale (Green, 1973) is a twenty eight item scale consisting of three statements which describe choices of reaction to a situation. The subject is to choose one statement that best reflects his own expected reaction to the situation. The statements have been rated by judges and given a numerical score based on the perceived degree of assertion. The scale yields a total numerical score which is reflective of the subject's tendency toward assertive behavior.

The Green Fox Scale has a reported split-half reliability of .66, the test-retest reliability is .79 over a three week interval. Internal consistency according to the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 is rated at .93.

In a recent validity study of the Green Fox Scale, Brodie (1979), found that a score of 60 was sucessful in identifying over 91 percent of the subjects who were judged to be assertive. The scale yields a total numerical score. This score can be used as a yardstick of tendency to be appropriately assertive.

Method

All subjects in this project participated voluntarily in completing the research instruments. Each group was tested within the first week of the program and again within the last week of the program. Each subject completed the three instruments at the pretest and again at the posttest. Subjects were told only that "the research was to determine what some of the changes were that occured as a result of the participating in the Life Skills Program". There were no specific references to the constructs under study. For most groups the time span between pretest and posttest was approximately three months with the exception of the Grieson Life Skills Groups having a two month time lapse.

Data Analysis

A two-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures was performed on the total sample responses for all three instruments. Correlated T-tests were done for each group on all instruments to determine significance of effect by groups. The minimum criterion for significance was set at

.05.

Summary

This chapter described the sample under study by providing an explanation of the broad characteristics of each of the groups involved in this study. Subgroups within the sample and under consideration in the research were also noted.

Specifics of the research instruments and the analysis of the data have been discussed. The next chapter will present the results of the analysis and will evaluate the hypotheses concerning the effects on the individual of participating in a social skills training group.

D. CHAPTER FOUR

Intent of the study

This evaluation focuses on three constructs which are believed to be central to the program. Locus of control, self-esteem, and assertion instruments recorded pre and post treatment measures for 86 subjects across six sample groups.

Length of treatment and type of treatment are considered equal, with the groups within the sample being the independent variable.

The original twelve groups were joined together in order to more clearly assess treatment according to type of group. The original groups were blended with other groups on the basis of sample similarity. All five of the groups from the Life Skills Training Centre are considered as one. The two groups from Grierson centre are considered as another group. Coaches, Chimo, Westfield, and Coach Training are considered separately as the remaining groups.

To facilitate the study of the relationship of the Locus of Control to the other variables, the posttest frequency distribution was plotted and an arbitrary division was created to identify Internal and External classifications of the Locus of Control.

Thirty-three and a third percent of the sample was chosen to delimit the 'Internals' and the 'Externals' at the ends of the frequency distribution. This quideline was

chosen, rather than using one standard deviation from the mean, to allow for relatively larger numbers of subjects to represent the two classifications.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS, LOCUS OF CONTROL

	INTERNAL	MIDRANGE	EXTERNAL
Rotter score	1 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 29
No. of subj.	24	37	25

Summary of Hypotheses Tested

Locus of Control

1. Externally oriented individuals will become more internally oriented.
2. Internally oriented individuals will maintain an internal locus of control throughout the program.
3. Individuals rated external will have a lower level of self-esteem and assertion compared to internally oriented individuals.

Self-esteem

4. Students in the program will achieve an increase in level of self-esteem.

Assertion

5. Students of the Life Skills program will have a tendency to be more assertive.

Coaches

6. Coaches will show no change in locus of control.
7. Coaches will show no change in self-esteem.
8. Coaches will show no change in assertion.

Correlation of Constructs

9. Self-esteem is positively correlated to assertion.
10. Assertion is not positively correlated with an internal locus of control.

Findings Related to Change in Locus of Control

Calculation of the means and standard deviations of the Rotter Locus of Control scores for the six groups was undertaken and is presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS, LOCUS OF CONTROL PRETEST AND POSTTEST MEASURES FOR SIX GROUPS

	Pretest		Posttest	
Group	mean	S.D.	mean	S.D.
Coach Training	8.14	3.61	5.21	3.20
Westfield	13.20	2.37	11.20	1.78
Training centre	9.56	4.03	7.94	3.89
Chimo	12.43	2.98	6.86	1.25
Grierson	9.25	5.04	8.58	4.21
Coaches	5.14	2.49	5.14	1.79

To determine if the group means were significantly different from each other, an analysis of variance was performed. Table 4 provides a summary of the analysis of variance.

TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

ROTTER LOCUS OF CONTROL

Source	MS	df	F-ratio	P
Between groups	108.42	5	4.30	.0015
Within groups	123.83	1	21.03	.00002

The analysis of variance P value indicated that the means were significantly different from each other and a correlated T-test on the group means was performed to determine which of the groups contributed to the statistical significance.

TABLE 5

T-TEST SUMMARY, ROTTER LOCUS OF CONTROL

Group	N	df	T	P	Sign.
Coach Training	13	12	3.755	.0027	Sign.
Westfield	3	2	.486	.2921	not Sign.

Training Centre	48	47	3.293	.0019	Sign.
Chimo	6	5	3.141	.0296	Sign.
Grierson	12	11	.763	.4613	not Sign.
Coaches	4	3	-1.000	.3910	not Sign.

While not all differences between means indicated statistical significance the trend was toward an Internal locus of control for all groups except the Coaches group which experienced no change in orientation at all. The following table illustrates the change in means from beginning to end of program.

PRETEST AND POSTTEST GROUP MEANS
LOCUS OF CONTROL

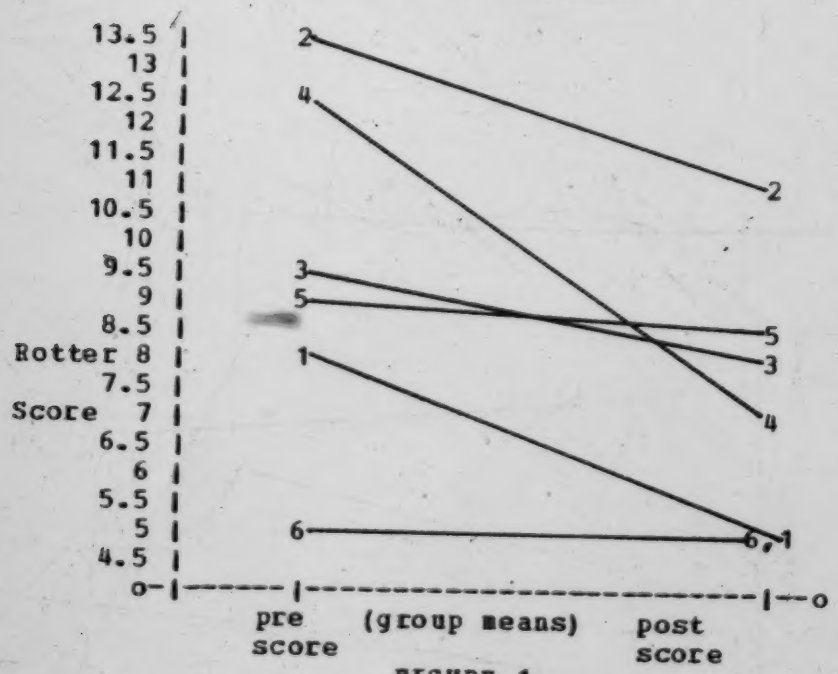

FIGURE 1

Code:
1 Coach Training
2 Westfield
3 Training Centre
4 Chimo
5 Grierson
6 Coaches

The trend toward an Internal Locus of Control for all groups except the Coaches was evident in Figure 1. T-tests on the differences in group means revealed that three of the six groups had a statistically significant change in locus of control over the duration of the program.

Hypothesis One makes the statement that Externally oriented individuals will change in their control orientation toward an Internal locus of control.

Hypothesis One is supported for the Coach Training, Training Centre, and Chimo groups and not supported for the Grierson Centre, Coaches and Westfield groups. The groups with differences in means which did not reach statistical significance did however show a notable trend toward the Internal locus of control.

Hypothesis Two makes the statement that Internally orientated individuals will maintain an Internal locus of control throughout the program.

Considering the total sample with groups combined, the following table represents the percentages of the sample represented in the Internal and External blocks of the locus of control.

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE OF SAMPLE

IN INTERNAL/EXTERNAL CLASSIFICATIONS

	pre	post
Internal	16.28%	27.91%
External	52.33%	29.07%

These findings suggest that hypothesis two could be accepted and it could be stated that Internals had a tendency to remain Internals more so than Externals had a tendency to remain External. A scattergram of the Locus of Control responses, compared to the other measures revealed that the Internals tend to be more consistent, less varied and more homogenous in their responses, than were the External subjects.

Of the subjects classified as Internal as a result of their pretest scores, 71.43% remained Internal on the posttest results, with 28.57% of that Internal classification being accounted for elsewhere in the posttest results.

External subjects on the pretest classified as Internals on the posttest composed 8.14% of the sample, (10 or more on the pretest to 5 or less on the posttest).

The posttest results on the Locus of Control for the

total combined group sample were blocked and the Internal and the External subjects were identified. T-tests were applied to responses on the other two instruments, utilizing the External and Internal groups as independent samples, to determine the significance of the differences between means. The following table shows the results of those T-tests

TABLE 7

INTERNAL'S AND EXTERNAL'S SCORES ON SELF-ESTEEM AND ASSERTION MEASURES

	Internals		Externals		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean Diff.
Self-esteem	356.13	27.67	295.36	51.99	60.77
Assertion	72.46	7.80	62.80	9.67	9.66

Hypothesis Three makes the statement that individuals rated as external will have a lower level of self-esteem and assertion compared to Internally rated individuals at the end of the program.

The External subject group scored lower on the self-esteem measure than the Internal group. The difference was significant at .001.

The External group also scored as being less assertive than the Internal group. The difference was also significant at .001.

As a result, Hypothesis Three can be supported and it can be stated that Externals as a group tend to evaluate themselves less positively and tend to act less assertively than do subjects with an Internal locus of control.

Findings Related to Change in Self-Esteem

Calculation of the means and standard deviations for the six groups, on the Tennessee Self Concept scale, Total Positive score, was undertaken and is presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8

SELF-ESTEEM

PRETEST AND POSTTEST MEASURES FOR ALL GROUPS

	pretest		posttest	
Group	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Coach Training	330.92	35.10	362.15	17.43
Westfield	299.67	32.33	307.33	39.79
Training Centre	302.54	38.60	318.12	48.80
Chimo	292.50	23.16	317.00	38.38
Grierson	304.84	30.57	320.54	35.93
Coaches	368.00	21.71	368.00	17.72

To determine if the group means were significantly different from each other an analysis of variance was performed. Table 9 provides a summary of the analysis of

variance.

TABLE 9

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SELF-ESTEEM MEASURE

Source	MS	df	F-ratio	P
Between groups	9662.254	5	3.772	.0039
Within groups	5078.230	1	9.855	.0023

The between-groups P value indicates that the group means were significantly different from each other and a correlated T-test was performed on the group means to determine which of the groups contributed to the statistical significance. Table 10 presents a summary of the T-test results for the self-esteem measure.

TABLE 10

SELF-ESTEEM, T-TEST RESULTS

Group	N	df	T(means)	P	Significance
Coach Training	13	12	4.782	.0004	sign. at .001
Westfield	3	2	4.539	.0887	not Sign.
Training Centre	48	47	3.804	.0004	Sign at .001
Chimo	6	5	2.171	.0821	not Sign.

Grierson	12	11	1.356	.2.22	not Sign
Coaches	5	4	0.0	1.000	not Sign.

The trends of change in group means from pretest to posttest are represented in the following figure.

PRETEST AND POSTTEST GROUP MEANS
SELF-ESTEEM

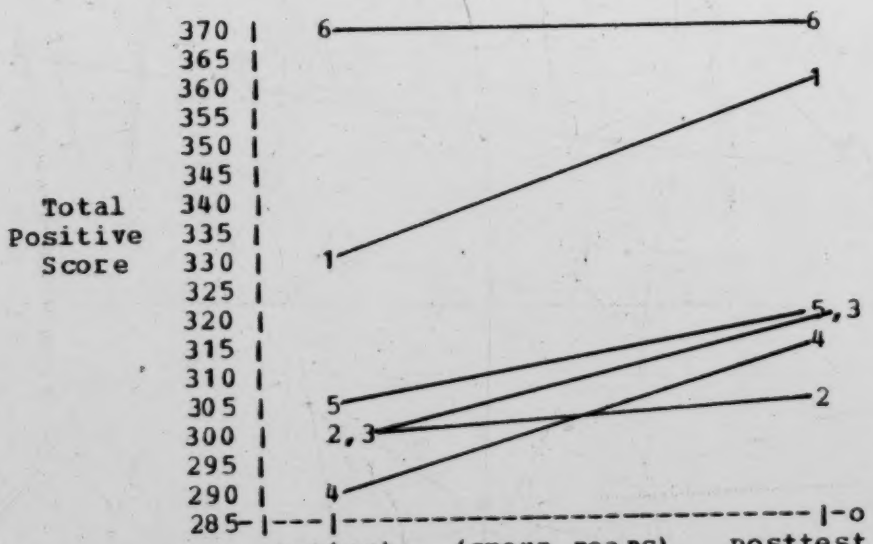

FIGURE 2

Code:
1 Coach Training
2 Westfield
3 Training Centre
4 Chimo
5 Grierson
6 Coaches

Five of the six groups, with the exception being the Coaches group, showed a trend toward higher levels of self-esteem from the beginning to the end of the program The pre and post measures of the self-esteem scale were significantly different for the Coach Training and Training Centre groups

Hypothesis Four, makes the statement that students in the program will achieve an increase in level of self-esteem. This hypothesis can be accepted only for the

Coach Training and Training Centre groups. While the difference in the means of the other groups results failed to reach statistical significance, the consistent group effect in achieving an increase in self-esteem is notable.

Findings Related to Change in Assertion

Calculation of the means and standard deviations for the six groups, on the Green Fox Scale, is presented in Table 11.

TABLE 11

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE GREEN FOX SCALE PRETEST AND POSTTEST MEASURES FOR ALL GROUPS

	Pretest		Posttest	
Group	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Coach Training	65.00	6.93	75.39	2.62
Westfield	56.66	3.75	60.00	4.13
Training Centre	61.02	10.72	66.00	9.33
Chimo	61.17	4.45	69.67	4.50
Grierson	66.08	7.57	72.08	8.69
Coaches	70.75	2.28	75.00	3.39

To test Hypothesis Five a two-factor analysis of variance with repeated measures was performed to determine if the differences between group means on the assertion

measure were statistically significant. Table 12 provides a summary of the analysis of variance.

TABLE 12

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

GREEN FOX SCALE

Source	MS	df	F-ratio	P
Between groups	300.78	5	2.188	.06212
Within groups	814.54	1	32.731	.0000

The P value of the analysis of variance of the total group was not significant at any level above the criterion level of .05 however, correlated T-tests on the means of individual groups reveal that the differences between pretest and posttest means are statistically significant for some groups.

TABLE 13

SUMMARY OF T-TEST RESULTS - ASSERTION

Group	N	df	T	P	Significance
Coach Training	13	12	5.806	.0001	Sign at .001
Westfield	3	2	2.671	.0484	not Sign.
Training Centre	48	47	4.693	.0000	Sign at .001
Chimo	6	5	2.638	.0461	not Sign.

Grierson	12	11	2.497	.0297 Sign at .05
Coaches	4	3	3.232	.0481 Sign at .05

The following figure illustrates the change in group means from pretest to posttest for all groups.

PRETEST AND POSTTEST GROUP MEANS
GREEN FOX SCALE

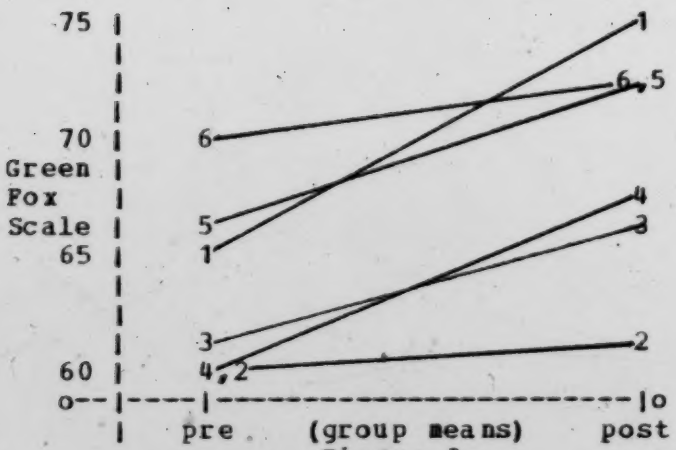

Figure 3

Code: 1 Coach Training 4 Chimo
2 Westfield 5 Grierson
3 Training Centre 6 Coaches

Hypothesis Five makes the statement that students of the Life Skills program will have the tendency to be more assertive. This hypothesis can be supported for four of the groups, Coach Training, Training Centre, Grierson, and Coaches, and not supported for Chimo and Westfield. The trend is for an increase in the tendency toward assertive behavior for all groups and it is notable that the Coaches group showed an increase on this measure.

Findings Related to the Coaches Group

Hypotheses Six, Seven and Eight relate to the effects,

on the Coaches, of involvement with the Life Skills program. These hypotheses make the statement that there would be no change in rating of locus of control, or level of self-esteem or assertion as measured by the instruments.

A summary of the T-test results for the Coaches group follows.

TABLE 14

T-TEST VALUES FOR THE MEANS

Variable	df	T	T-critical	P	Sign
Locus of Control	3	1.00	3.18	.391	no
Self-esteem	3	0.0	3.18 at .05	1.000	no
Assertion	3	3.23	3.18 at .05	.048	Sign.

The following table is a summary of the Coaches' group means on all measures.

TABLE 15

SUMMARY OF MEANS, COACHES GROUP

Measure	Pretest	Posttest
Locus of Control	5.14	5.14
Self-Esteem	368.00	368.00
Assertion	70.75	75.00

o----------o

On the measures of locus of control and self-esteem there was little or no change in group mean. The pretest and posttest means were significantly different on the assertion measure. As can be seen on previous tables the Coaches maintained a high level of self-esteem and a consistently low Internal score on the Locus of Control measure. Those outcomes represent desirable results and could be considered to be goal levels of performance for other subjects. The Coaches performed at an overall high level of assertion as recorded by the Green Fox Scale and their posttest score was only surpassed by the performance of the Coach Training group.

Hypotheses Six and Seven can be supported and Hypothesis Eight cannot be supported.

Findings Related to Demographic Data

A Pearson-product moment correlation for all variables in the study was computed. In addition to the pretest and posttest variables of the self-esteem, locus of control, and assertion variables measures, demographic data of the subjects were considered as interactional variables. The demographic variables were age of subject, sex, birthorder, and whether the subject's upbringing was primarily rural or urban. The correlational matrix is presented in Table 16.

TABLE 16

CORRELATIONAL MATRIX, ALL VARIABLES

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
A	1.00	.720	.142	.031	-.045	-.128	.407	.445	-.367	-.478
B		1.000	.182	.022	-.120	-.195	.301	.529	-.395	-.588
C			1.000	.720	.086	-.179	-.095	-.020	.006	-.094
D				1.000	.024	-.261	-.092	.009	.017	.016
E					1.000	-.091	-.002	-.023	-.041	.029
F						1.000	.004	-.168	.088	.194
G							1.000	.689	-.398	-.268
H								1.000	-.396	-.485
I									1.000	.654
J										1.000

Code:

A = Self-esteem pretest

B = Self-esteem posttest

C = Age

D = Sex,

E = Birth order

F = Upbringing

G = Assertion pretest

H = Assertion posttest

I = Locus of Control pretest

J = Locus of Control posttest

A summary of the correlations follows, in which only the posttest correlations of the instrumental variables which achieved statistical significance are considered.

TABLE 17

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS

Variables	Correlation	Sign.
Self-esteem with assertion	.529	Sign.at .01
Assertion with locus of control	-.485	Sign.at .01
Locus of control with self-esteem	-.588	Sign at .01
sex with upbringing	-.261	Sign.at .02

The summary reveals that the three concepts are significantly correlated. This may be interpreted to mean that an increase in self-esteem will be accompanied by an increase in the tendency to be assertive and a move toward an Internal locus of control. An increase in assertion will tend to be accompanied by an increase in self-esteem and a move toward an Internal locus of control. A move toward an Internal locus of control will tend to be accompanied by an increase in self-esteem and assertion. Hypothesis nine can be accepted and hypothesis ten must be rejected.

The sex and upbringing correlation reveals that for the women participating in the Life Skills program it is probable that they were primarily raised in a rural setting

as opposed to an urban setting. Presumably these women have had less opportunity to learn an adequate level of social skills due to their rural upbringing.

Ancilliary Findings

A number of the original subjects of this study failed to complete the program The reasons for the drop-outs, however were unrecorded in this evaluation.

To determine if there were subject characteristics, in terms of their locus of control, assertion, and self-esteem level, that could be considered as predictors that subjects would or would not complete the program, an analysis of variance was performed. The total sample was divided into two groups, those who completed the program and those who had not completed the program. The analysis of variance was done on the pretest scores of all three instruments to determine if the difference in means was significant. Table 18 presents the means and a summary of the analysis of variance.

TABLE 18

Drop-outs vs. Completed program

LOCUS OF CONTROL

Means and Standard Deviations

	N	Mean	Mean Diff.	S.D.
Incompleted	40	9.43		3.59
Completed	97	9.39	.04	4.33
Total	137	9.40		4.10

Analysis of Variance

Source	MS	df	F	P
Groups	.03	1	0.00	.968
Error	17.03	135		

SELF-ESTEEM

Means and Standard Deviations

	N	Mean	Mean Diff.	S.D.
Completed	93	308.69		38.69
Incompleted	38	314.00	5.31	41.85
Total	131	310.23		39.40

Analysis of Variance

Source	MS	df	F	P
Groups	761.00	1	.48	.488
Error	1570.12	129		

ASSERTION

Means and Standard Deviations

	N	Mean	Mean Diff.	S.D.
Incompleted	38	62.84		7.34
Completed	99	62.74	.1	9.67
Total	137	62.77		9.02

Analysis of Variance

Source	MS	df	F	P
Groups	.19	1	0.00	.962
Error	82.61	135		

There is very little difference between these groups on all of the measures, therefore there are no variables that were measured that could be predictors of completing or not completing the program.

The effect of the Life Skills program on the measures

of locus of control, self-esteem and assertion have been considered for the six groups in the study. The evaluation of group effect has been completed and the results presented in this chapter. Discussion of the results and implications will be presented in the next chapter.

E. CHAPTER FIVE

Introduction

This chapter will provide discussion of the outcomes of this study. The effect on the individual of intensive social skill training as provided by the Life Skills program, will be inferred by considering the effect on groups within the sample. Treatment effect on the variables of self-esteem, locus of control, and assertion has been used to evaluate change in social functioning abilities.

A summary of the performance of the sample groups will be presented. The chapter will conclude with presentation of the limitations and the implications of this evaluation study.

Discussion

Locus of Control

The total sample achieved a significant change in locus of control. This change was in the direction that had been predicted, which was that the subjects would become more internally controlled. In becoming more internal, the tendency would be to proclaim the belief that one does have sufficient personal power or impact to effect change; that he is in control, and responsible for his own success and failures. A belief is considered to be comparable to a philosophical framework from which

an individual makes decisions about courses of action, and also from which attitudes about the self and one's abilities are formed. It has been speculated that a person with an Internal locus of control will be more motivated and self-assured in all aspects of his life.

The consistent trend for all groups except the coaches group was toward being more Internal. The Coach Training, Training Centre, and Chimo groups all reached significance, while the change for the Westfield and Grierson groups did not reach significance. Therefore it is reasonable to state that this form of social slills training is effective in developing the personal belief in one's own abilities, and encouraging personal responsibility for achieving or for failing to achieve your goals. There should be less tendency for the Life Skills students to blame others for misfortune or lack of success and achievement.

Subjects who were classified as Internal at the beginning of the program tended to remain Internally oriented. Considering the change of orientation of a major portion of the sample, it is presumed that the Life Skills program is supportive of self-determined Internally oriented behavior and serves to maintain that type of social functioning.

The characteristics of an Externally oriented individual, relative to assertion and self-esteem levels were determined. Externals were identified in this

sample as having notably lower levels of self-esteem and having notably less assertive tendencies than Internally oriented individuals. This finding is similar to other results recorded in the literature.

Self-Esteem

Change in the level of self-esteem for the total group was significant. The Coach Training and Training Centre groups had significant changes in self-esteem as a result of participating in the Life Skills program. The Coaches group had no change at all and while the changes recorded for the Westfield, Chimo, and Grierson groups did not reach significance the trend was consistently in the predicted direction. Excluding the Coaches group, all of the groups increased in their level of self-esteem. The Life Skills program was effective in developing more positive self-evaluations, and by inference improving an individual's self-concept. An assumption that relates to this finding would be that Life Skills students become more confident of their abilities to solve problems and generally deal with life situations in a more positive and resourceful manner.

Assertion

The analysis of variance did not reveal statistical significance but the T-tests on group means of the individual groups proved to be statistically significant

for the Coach Training, Training Centre, Grierson and Coaches groups. The Westfield and Chimo groups did not achieve statistical significance but did exhibit a notable trend toward becoming more assertive as a result of participating in the program.

All groups in this study, at the pretest, were near or above Brodie's cutting score for an acceptable level of assertive behavior (Brodie, 1979).

Correlation of constructs

The three constructs, locus of control, self-esteem and assertion were found to be significantly correlated with each other. This finding reinforces the belief that an individual who takes responsibility for his own actions and achievements, will likely be prepared to act assertively as social situations demand, and that he will feel positively about himself as a result of this level of social functioning.

Group Effect

The results of this evaluation will now be presented by group in orderto show the differences in group effect.

1. Coach Training group

The Coach Training group achieved the most change in assertion, self-esteem and locus of control, as a result of participating in the Life skills program. It may be speculated that the reason for this greater

degree of change is due to a level of motivation that may have been higher than that of other groups. The fact that the members of this group were going to be leading other groups as coaches, and needed to adopt the skills and outlook of the Life Skills program to a greater degree may have had an influence upon their commitment to the learning embodied in the program. In a sense their life skills would be "on display" more so than those of the other students. Another factor may be that the attention to the role of leader may influence the learning to a greater degree. A final speculation is that the leader of the Coach Training group was more effective than the other coaches in leading the group, and fostering the learning of new social skills and attitudes. Possibly an interaction of these factors was responsible for the effect.

2. Westfield

The Westfield group did not achieve significantly different means on any of the measures, locus of control, self-esteem or assertion. The consistent trend was, however toward becoming more Internal in locus of control, more assertive and to have a more positive level of self-esteem.

3. Life Skills Training Centre

The Training Centre group achieved statistically significant differences between means on all measures, which indicates that the students in this group made

gains in their tendencies to be appropriately assertive, were more positive in their self-evaluations and were more Internally controlled.

4. Chimo

The Chimo group demonstrated an increase on the measure of Locus of Control. The measures of self-esteem and assertion did not reach significance but the group did exhibit notable trends toward having more positive levels of self-esteem and tending to be more assertive.

5. Grierson

The Grierson group demonstrated an increase on the measure of assertion, but did not have significant differences between the pretest and posttest means on measures of self-esteem or locus of control. The trend on those measures was toward becoming more Internal in their control orientation and becoming more self-positive.

6. Coaches

As predicted the coaches had no change, in self-esteem or locus of control. The Coaches did, however achieve a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest meansof the assertion instrument.

The posttest level on the assertion scale was exceeded only by the Coach Training group and was very close to that achieved by the Grierson group.

It can be speculated that the Coaches became more

assertive toward the end of the program. The test-retest reliability of the Green Fox Scale is .79 so this is not a relevant factor in considering this change in achievement of an assertion rating. The other instruments would not likely show much, if any change, due to the Coaches group being very close to what can be considered a ceiling level of high self-esteem and low Internal scores. The Coaches were not at a ceiling level of assertion at the beginning of the program and thus had relatively more opportunity to change their score level.

Limitations of the study

The small size of some of the groups under study may be considered to be a limitation in determining effect of the treatment on various sample groups, particularly the Westfield and Chimo groups. This study has shown varying degrees of effect of the treatment program, and it is not within the scope of the design of this evaluation study to determine what factors cause this differential effect. It may be speculated that the characteristics of the Coach and the composition of the sample affect the degree of treatment outcome. There is the possibility that the differential affect on group performance is due to factors that have not been controlled for in this study design, and that differences in achievement are caused by an interaction of the attributes of the sample and the coaching ability of the group leader. Variables for the Coaches may be personality,

experience, or other factors of coaching style and the sample variables may be individual characteristics, and abilities within the group that distinguish one groups performance from another.

The goal of this evaluation study was to determine the degree and direction of change in three constucts as a result of the Life Skills program, so discussion of differential group effect is of relatively minor concern.

The lack of a follow-up evaluation and the lack of a no-treatment control group, for comparison of the overall effect of the treatment program may be cited as a limitation of this study. The reasons for these omissions have been noted previously. Future studies should be able to deal somewhat with these design faults by evaluating groups led by the same Coach. Follow-up evaluations are only useful if a no-treatment control group design has been utilized. Future studies may be able to match the subjects in such a way as to allow for a comparison of effect in this manner.

Implications

The Life Skills program was developed to provide social skill training in dealing with others, coping with others, solving problems, and generally functioning socially at a self-sufficient and productive level. This training is meant to develop social functioning to the degree that the individual need not rely on assistance from any social agency for interventions that are essentially crisis

oriented or constitute long term support.

This study has evaluated change in subject's levels of self-esteem, assertion and locus of control. While the treatment effect was achieved to varying degrees of significance, the consistent trends were for an increase in self-esteem, an increased tendency to be assertive in social interactions and to be more self-determined in controlling one's life situations. The trends on all measures were similar and consistent for all student groups within the total sample.

It can be concluded that the Life Skills program is effective in developing feelings of increased self-esteem, and assertion, as well as fostering the individual's belief in one's own capabilities in meeting and resolving problems, and dealing effectively with social interactions.

The students are likely more self-reliant and motivated toward taking steps to effectively deal with situations, which, it may be speculated, would have been met with resignation and apathy prior to Life Skills training. The effects demonstrated on the wide ranging sample are notable when one considers that the concepts "self-esteem", "assertion", or "Internal/External locus of control" are very seldom directly mentioned throughout the program.

This study has considered the effects upon the individual of social skills training. The subjects were from backgrounds that varied in ability, age, experience, literacy, education, and training, as well as social

functioning. The program has had a notable effect in modifying three central aspects of adequate social functioning.

The results of the study should serve as encouragement to practitioners in that the Life Skills program seems to amply provide a vehicle for developing assertion, self-esteem and Internal control in individuals with insufficient abilities for coping productively with social interaction and social responsibilities.

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